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ABSTRACT

Beginning with a review of traditional perspectives on educational leadership, the link between effective principals and school effectiveness, and the bases of social power, this document goes on to report on a 1986-87 study conducted to determine how the types of power used by principals relate to school effectiveness. Subjects were administrators and selected teachers in 34 public middle schools in 9 school districts in New York City. Following a description of participants' background data, study findings are presented via descriptions of an Administrative Behavior Scale and a School Assessment Scale that, together, show relationships between various power behaviors, elements of school effectiveness, and the mutual empowerment of teachers and principals. Different power behaviors by principals are shown to elicit different responses from their teachers, with the use of influence being the most conducive to mutual empowerment, positive organizational climate, and improved teacher performance. Last, eight suggestions for principals' personal policy and style are provided. Included are one figure and nine tables. (25 references) (CLA)

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THE MUTUAL EMPOWERMENT OF TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS

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THE MUTUAL EMPOWERMENT OF TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS

Marcel Kshensky and Rodney Muth

Fail to honor people,
They fail to honor you;
But of a good leader, who talks little
When his work is done, his aim fulfilled,
They will all say "We did this ourselves."

Lao Tzu

Bertrand Russell (1938, pp. 12-13) once declared that power is the fundamental social science concept "in the same sense in which energy is a fundamental concept in physics. . . . The laws of social dynamics . . . can only be stated in terms of power." Essential to leadership and organizational life, power has gained national prominence as teachers seek "empowerment."

Despite the fears of many administrators who anticipate a loss of power in the empowerment of teachers, mutual empowerment of principal and teachers can benefit both. Unlike the rope in a tug-of-war, which must give on one end when it is pulled on the other, power is infinitely expandable, like the concentric rings emanating from a pebble dropped in a calm lake. Even so, what forms emerging leadership roles for teachers will take is not always clear, nor is it clear exactly how school administrators will be affected. Despite the lip-service given to shared decision making, most schools are highly bureaucratic with centralized decision processes that largely disenfranchise teachers (Carnegie, 1988).

Traditional Perspectives

Traditional views of organizational control reflect the belief that leadership capability in organizations is finite, that subordinates are less

capable of leadership than those in designated positions, and that organizational effectiveness is increased by reducing individual discretion on the part of all but a few (Tannenbaum, 1968). Within this framework, strong leadership is defined as control, and empowerment of teachers means loss of control: principals lead and teachers must follow, just as military units follow their officers. Strong leadership is evidenced in quick, often unquestioning compliance, not in protracted consensus, and leadership is achieved not by including teachers in decision making but by excluding them.

To many, collaborative decision-making processes are time consuming, inefficient, and inconsistent with strong leadership. Many principals, for example, fear that allowing teachers to assume leadership will erode their own power and reduce their management prerogatives. Other principals also feel that sharing power with teachers contradicts expectations for their performance, especially when they have been exhorted to provide "strong instructional leadership." Nevertheless, they now feel mounting pressures to accept power sharing through collaboration and participative decision making.

The Basic Dilemma

These dual demands for strong leadership and shared decision making create a dilemma for school principals. How, some ask, can principals exercise strong traditional leadership, providing the direction necessary to guide the efforts of teachers, and simultaneously share power with teachers? And, for the principal willing to share power, how can this be accomplished while ". . . a good many teachers seem to be doubtful about the desirability of significantly changing the relative authority they have vis-a-vis school" (Bacharach, Bauer, & Shedd, 1986)? One answer, in effective schools, lies in

the positive, reciprocal, and synergistic power relations that can develop between principals and their staffs (Blase, 1988).

Effective Schools, Effective Principals

Chief among the characteristics of effective schools (Edmonds, 1982a; 1982b) is the role the school's principal plays in contributing to high student achievement: principal leadership "is crucial to the school's success with students" (Lipham, 1981, p. 2) as is strong "participation in the classroom instructional program" (Austin, 1979, p. 12).

Effective school administrators know from what bases their power comes and which power resource is appropriate in a given situation (McClelland, 1970; Shetty, 1978). They use the formal authority of office effectively but also attempt to influence the path of the school through "deep direction," through involvement in the school's "culture"--its system of norms, expectations, goals, and values which shape student and staff behavior in the school's classrooms, hallways, and fields of play. Such administrators can give teachers a sense of ownership of the problems they resolve, enhance their self-esteem through recognitions of their contributions to the growth and evolution of the school's culture, and increase their stature in the community.

The Bases of Power

Over thirty years ago, French and Raven (1959) defined five bases of social power--reward, coercive, legitimate, referent, and expert. Reward power depends upon the actor's ability and resources to reward others.

Coercive power depends primarily on fear: the person with coercive power has the ability to inflict punishment or aversive consequences on the target of coercion. Legitimate power stems from the target person's internalized values

which gives the power holder the legitimate right to direct the target's behavior. Referent power is based on an emotional connection between the power target and the power holder and usually comes from the target's desire to identify with the actor wielding the power. Expert power is based on the extent to which the power target attributes knowledge and expertise to the power actor, knowledge or expertise which is believed essential, beneficial, or useful by the target.

In addition to French and Raven's original conceptions, information power was identified as a sixth power resource in 1975 by Raven and Kruglanski. This power resource, similar to expert power, is based on the actor's possession of or access to information that is perceived as valuable by others. Connection power, identified in 1979 by Hersey and Blanchard (1982), is based on the actor's linkage with influential or important persons inside or outside the organization.

A Power Continuum

Building on French and Raven's work, Muth (1984; 1989) developed a synthesized power model incorporating these power types and redefined power behaviors, regardless of their bases, on a continuum ranging from influence to coercion, with authority at the midpoint. The purpose in developing this continuum was to create a means of explaining why power acts can divide as well as integrate social systems.

Muth's (1989) power continuum provides a model for studying power behavior that incorporates prior work on the bases of power (French & Raven, 1959; Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; Raven & Kruglanski, 1975) as well as Bacharach and Lawler's (1980) typology. Muth maintains that, "to capture the full range of power-types, power may be viewed as a continuum of interactions, extending

from its coercive aspects, those in which force of some kind is used, to those situations in which coercion is nonexistent" but the power recipient still does what the power wielder intended (1983, p. 13). In this model, coercion is "the ability of an actor to compel another to do as the actor intends, regardless of the other's wishes" (Muth, 1981, pp. 13-14). Authority is at the center of the continuum and is defined as "the legitimation" of an actor's ability to affect another's behavior. Here, the actor who complies with another's wishes does so voluntarily. Influence is at the opposite end of the continuum from coercion and is "the ability of an actor, without recourse to force or authority, to persuade another to behave as desired" (p. 17). Influence comes into play when an actor cannot use, or chooses not to use, authoritative or coercive resources.

[PLACE FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE]

Using such a power model to study power behaviors may illuminate for principals the most effective ways to redefine and conserve their own power while empowering others. As Bennis and Nanus observe, "The essential thing in organizational leadership is that the leader's style pulls rather than pushes people on" (1985, p. 80). Bogue, quoting the German philosopher Goethe, makes a similar point: "If we take people as they are, we make them worse. If we treat them as if they were what they ought to be, we help them become what they are capable of becoming" (1985, p. 18). Thus, a principal's vision of what can be, translated through the use of influence, may empower others to achieve at levels perhaps unimagined.

The Study

This study examines the power behavior of secondary school principals and relates these behaviors to school effectiveness variables. The study's

primary hypotheses were that the types of power principals use are related to school effectiveness and that principals and teachers can share power, mutually empowering one another.

Methodology

To test these hypotheses, a survey of administrators and randomly selected teachers in 34 public middle schools was conducted in nine school districts in New York City during the 1986-87 school year. The unit of analysis for this study was the school or principal.

Middle schools were selected for this study for a number of reasons. First, little school effectiveness research had been conducted in middle schools, and previous researchers expressed a need for further research on this level. Second, middle schools provide a unique setting for examining principal power behaviors. Middle schools have some of the characteristics of elementary schools (small size, neighborhood demographics) and some characteristics of high schools (departmental structure, mid-level managers). Third, renewed interest in the middle school as a bridge from elementary school to high school heightens the importance of these transitional schools. Further, the significance of transescence, ages 10 to 14, in the development of a child is widely recognized. Finally, considerable discussion about the optimum middle school organization--grades 5 to 8, 6 to 8, or 7 to 9--has occurred lately.

The School Sample

Nine school districts, representing the demographic diversity of New York City (see Table 1), were selected for inclusion in the study. Within these nine districts, thirty-four (64%) of the districts' 53 middle schools

participated in the survey. A 35th school was used for the pilot study in 1987 to test the instruments and the administration procedures.

[PLACE TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE]

Districts in Queens had the least student mobility and staff turnover, while districts in Manhattan and the Bronx had the highest student mobility and staff turnover. The schools in the sample also varied greatly in size: the smallest had a staff of 42 while the largest had a staff of 124. Together, the selected schools were representative of New York City's 32 public school districts in terms of size, location, and clientele.

Procedures

The principal and all assistant principals in each school were sent questionnaires. These were identical to the teachers' survey forms except for a few word changes in the Administrator Behavior Scale (power variables) and the leadership section of the School Assessment Survey.

A third of the teaching staff in each school received survey instruments. A questionnaire, cover letter, and stamped, return-addressed envelope were enclosed in an envelope addressed to the individual teacher. The goal was to have minimum participation of 15% of a school's staff in order for the school to be included in the study. When too few questionnaires were returned, a second set was sent to the school a month after the first. Reminder letters and thank-you letters were also sent to the respondents.

Of the total of 2,432 teachers in the 34 schools, 1,165 received questionnaires. From these teachers, 375 (32%) usable instruments were returned, with a minimum of 15% of the teachers in each school participating.

Background Data

Data about teachers were collected for two reasons. First, various characteristics of teachers might affect their perceptions of their principals' behavior and their assessment of their school's effectiveness. Second, these data made it possible to study differences among staffs with certain characteristics and relate these variables to their schools' effectiveness.

Background information included the sex, age, and marital status of the respondents as well as the courses they taught, their years of teaching experience, the highest degree they had attained, and the number of credits taken since completion of their highest degree. In addition, assistant principals and principals were also asked about their administrative experience.

The 488 respondents included in the study were full-time middle school employees: 34 principals, 79 assistant principals, and 375 teachers. The average age of the respondents was 48. They had worked in their present schools for about 10 years and had 18 years of experience in education. For principals in the sample, the averages were 52 years of age, 8 years in their present school, and 30 years of educational experience. For assistant principals, the numbers were 50, 9, and 29, respectively. For teachers, the figures were 41, 10, and 16 in the same categories.

The total sample respondents were 56% male and 43% female; 69% were married, 31% were not. Twelve percent had bachelors degrees, 81% had master's degrees, 3% had doctorates, and 4% had earned another degree. Twenty percent of the total sample had taught language arts, 18% taught social studies,

another 18% taught science, and 16% taught mathematics. Thus, 72% of the sample taught, at one time or another, one of these four major subjects.

The teacher sample respondents compare as follows with national norms for teachers for 1986. Nationally, 38.6% of middle school teachers were male and 61.4% female; 47.9% had a bachelors degree as their highest degree and 50.7% had a Master's or better. The median age nationally was 40, with a median of 16 years of educational experience. By contrast, the study sample had 47% male and 53% female; 15% had bachelors degrees; and 84% had a master's or better. The median age for the study group was 41, with a median of 16 years of educational experience. The teacher sample differed from national norms primarily in the higher percentage of male teachers and the greater percentage with advanced degrees, factors which may be a product of the region from which the sample was drawn. The two samples were, however, almost identical in age and educational experience.

Findings

The sections directly below examine the scales used in the study and the interactions between them.

Administrative Behavior Scale

A series of t-tests were performed on the ABS variables, comparing the teacher and principal means in the 34-school sample (see Table 2). The t-tests were conducted after dividing the 34 schools into four quartiles, based on their School Effectiveness Score ranking. The t statistics show a greater congruence of means in teacher and principal perception of principal power behavior in the first quartile schools. That is, teachers in more effective schools are more likely to concur about principal power behaviors than are their counterparts in other schools. The t statistic for authority ranges

from .408 in the first quartile to 1.916 in the fourth quartile. Although the t-test statistic for influence does not rise as dramatically, it increased from 2.043 in the first quartile to 2.518 in the fourth quartile. The second and third quartiles have even higher t statistics of 3.027 and 2.878 respectively. The t-test statistic for coercion also rises in the first three quartiles from -1.366 to -1.834 to -2.135. The fourth quartile shows the smallest t score of -.420, indicating high congruence in perception of principal coercive behavior.

[PLACE TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE]

School Assessment Scale

The SAS was designed to measure perceptions of six components of an individual school's effectiveness. Means and correlations for the six scales show some significant relationships. Goal Consensus, for example, was scored higher by principals than teachers. Using Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance (W), principals had a coefficient of .413 as opposed to teachers' .285. As Table 3 indicates, teachers generally rated their schools lower than principals on the other five measures of school effectiveness. Especially noteworthy was the difference in their perceptions of instructional leadership: the means were 41.408 for teachers and 49.147 for principals. Interestingly, teachers rated their own performance lower than principals did, 61.264 as opposed to 68.809.

[PLACE TABLE 3 ABOUT HERE]

As this correlation matrix for the SAS indicates (see Table 3), the highest correlation existed between horizontal and vertical communication ($r = .657$; $p < .005$). Table 3 shows moderately positive relationships between leadership and climate ($r = .377$; $p < .005$), leadership and vertical

communication ($r = .351$; $p < .005$), leadership and teacher performance ($r = .399$; $p < .005$), and climate and teacher performance ($r = .385$; $p < .005$). There were no inverse relationships among the five school effectiveness measures.

School and district scores on the six school effectiveness components measured by the SAS had a wide variance as Table 4 shows. The low scores in teacher performance were striking as were the wide range of scores.

[PLACE TABLE 4 ABOUT HERE]

A series of t-tests were also run on the SAS variables, comparing the teacher and principal means in the 34-school sample. The t-tests were performed after dividing the 34 schools into four quartiles based on their School Effectiveness Score ranking (see Table 5).

[PLACE TABLE 5 ABOUT HERE]

The t statistics indicate that teachers' and principals' perceptions of leadership in the top quartile schools are more congruent than those in lesser quartiles, averaging 1.604 in the first and second quartiles, and 2.652 in the third and fourth quartiles. Although the climate and teacher performance t statistics also increase from the first to the fourth quartile, the increase is not as linear as for leadership. On the other hand, the t-test statistics for horizontal and vertical communication show a greater congruence of means in the lower quartile schools. The t statistic for horizontal communication goes from 1.798 in the first quartile to .214 in the fourth. The t statistic for vertical communication begins at 5.290 in the first quartile and falls to 3.620 in the fourth quartile.

Relations between the Two Scales

Many of the correlations among the eight variables on the ABS and SAS were significant. (Goal Consensus was analyzed using Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance W, a rank order measure for groups, and was excluded from Table 6.) As is clear from Table 6, strong positive relationships exist between authority and leadership ($r = .539$; $p < .005$) and between influence and leadership ($r = .617$; $p < .005$), whereas coercion and leadership had an inverse relationship ($r = -.156$; $p < .01$). Authority and influence were moderately positively related to climate ($r = .419$ and $.308$, respectively; $p < .005$). Again, coercion had a negative relationship with climate ($r = -.074$; $p < .01$).

[PLACE TABLE 6 ABOUT HERE]

Slightly positive relationships were found between authority and horizontal communication and influence and horizontal communication ($r = .117$ and $.158$; $p < .05$). Coercion related negatively with this variable ($r = -.020$; $p < .05$). Stronger positive relationships existed between authority and vertical communication and influence and vertical communication ($r = .195$ and $.296$; $p < .005$). Coercion had a negative relationship ($r = -.093$; $p < .05$). Strong positive correlations were also found between authority and influence and teacher performance ($r = .319$ and $.317$; $p < .005$). Coercion continued to be negatively related to school effectiveness variables, this time to teacher performance ($r = -.093$; $p < .05$).

A series of multiple regressions were conducted, using the power behavior and school effectiveness variables in the study. These procedures helped determine the relative contributions of the power variables in predetermined relationships. As Table 7 shows, authority had the strongest

relationship to school effectiveness (here a composite "score"). The standard error of the estimate, 4.348, indicates how much the estimation of school effectiveness (the dependent variable) might be in error, given the best possible linear relationship between itself and the three power variables. The coefficient of determination, R , indicates a positive (.183), though fairly weak, relationship among the four variables. It is stronger, however, than the "chance" R , which is .088 (Edwards & Newman, 1983).

[PLACE TABLE 7 ABOUT HERE]

Examining the standardized regression coefficients, influence and coercion maintain their inverse relationship with effectiveness. Authority, however, has a strong positive relationship with school effectiveness (.567; $p > .05$). These relationships were borne out by the T values and P values (2 tail). The T values indicate relative predictive power, and influence and coercion are about half as predictive as authority.

The stepwise regression in Table 7 indicates that .166 of the relationship between the four variables is explained by authority, that coercion explains no additional variance, and influence accounts only for an additional .017 of the variance.

As Table 8 shows, influence had the strongest relationship to horizontal communication. The standard error of the estimate, 6.3785, indicates how much the estimation of horizontal communication might be in error. The standardized regression coefficients for coercion and authority have equally weak relationships with horizontal communication. Influence, however, has a moderately positive relationship with horizontal communication (.156; $p > .05$). These relationships were also supported by the T values and P values (2 tail). The stepwise regression part of Table 8 indicates that .027

of the relationship between the four variables is explained by influence, that coercion explains no additional variance (.000), and authority accounts only for an additional .001 of the variance.

[PLACE TABLE 8 ABOUT HERE]

Table 9 shows that influence also had the strongest relationship to vertical communication. The standard error of the estimate, 6.200, remains high, while the standardized regression coefficients for coercion and authority have weak relationships with vertical communication. Coercion's relationship is actually negative (-.007), while authority's is not (.072). Influence, however, has a fairly positive relationship with vertical communication (.259; $p < .001$). These relationships were mirrored by the T values and P values (2 tail). The stepwise regression part of Table 9 indicates that .080 of the relationship between the four variables is explained by influence, that coercion explains .009 of the variance, and authority only an additional .002 of the variance.

[PLACE TABLE 9 ABOUT HERE]

Discussion

The mutual empowerment of teachers and principals is reflected in their level communication. T-tests for the SAS (Table 5) show that the top quartile schools had higher scores for horizontal and vertical communication, suggesting that communication is more effective in upper quartile schools. Additionally, the correlation matrix for the SAS (Table 3), shows that horizontal and vertical communication are highly related ($r = .657$), indicating that communications among teachers and between teachers and administrators may reinforce one another. This synergistic relationship

between both types of communication may reflect the synergy that may also develop from mutual or reciprocal empowerment processes.

Leadership, too, has significant positive relationships with climate, vertical communication, and teacher performance (Table 3), and influence and authority are significantly positively related to leadership (Table 6). Conversely, coercion is negatively related to every school effectiveness component (Table 6). The variables which delineate teacher empowerment (horizontal and vertical communication and climate) are highly related to principal influence and authority.

The strong relationship between principal authority and influence and school leadership, climate, vertical communication, and teacher performance is clearly demonstrated by the data (see also Table 7). These trends are particularly consequential as the challenge of educating our middle school youth is addressed. While middle schools have gone relatively unnoticed in the school effectiveness research, understanding principal power behavior may provide a key to comprehending transformational leadership in middle schools and its consequences for increasing school effectiveness.

Leadership means enlisting the willing participation of teachers "as collaborating allies rather than as unwilling subordinates grudgingly conceding to their lack of power" (Shulman, 1983, p. 492). The principal, in this case, can be an empowerer, one who empowers herself or himself and the staff by creating a partnership in excellence: "The most common word used to describe favorable interaction between teachers and principals was 'share'" (Pitner, 1986, p. 38).

In accord with Muth's model, the study found that different power behaviors by principals elicit different responses from their teachers. The

outcome of coercion, which depends on the use of force, is capitulation, while the outcome of authority is obedience, for its success depends on mutually understood contractual obligations. In coercion, control rests with the principal, for the completion of the act is wholly dependent upon the principal's use--or potential use--of force. In authority, the control is mutual; that is, the completion of an act depends equally on both parties, for it is predetermined by contractual agreement. The principal has a right to ask, and a teacher has an obligation to obey.

When the principal uses influence, however, its successful outcome is acceptance. Here, control shifts to teachers, because they are neither forced nor obligated to comply. Thus, acceptance of a request or suggestion is entirely their decision, and a principal's use of power through influence can empower teachers, genuinely allowing them to accept willingly an act of leadership. When a principal uses--and encourages the use of--influence, a teacher chooses to accept or not to accept a principal's initiative. In choosing, a base is built for the development of reciprocal influence between teachers and principals, and empowerment is nurtured.

In this mutuality lies the concept of empowerment through synergy--a relationship in which both principal and teacher are empowered through mutual trust and mutual influence. In this situation, greater teacher participation need not diminish a principal's ability to manage school events. Indeed, a principal can use power to increase staff ownership of and involvement in school improvement programs, for example. Such use of influence creates a positive climate and improves teachers' performance. Further, influential behaviors beget responses from teachers that encourage continuing and increasing use of influence as the primary form of power.

While coercion brings compliance in the short term, the cost is damage to a teacher's self-esteem, motivation, and willingness to go beyond the letter of the contract. In contrast to coercion which depresses input or creativity, influence increases motivation and empowers teachers to become more professional. On the other hand, influence does not require a principal to abandon legitimate authority which is strongly related to school effectiveness. In fact, these two forms of power complement one another and should be used as appropriate, either separately or together. Especially for middle schools, which are relatively unnoticed in the school effectiveness research, understanding principals' use of power may provide a key to transforming leadership and increasing school effectiveness. Through a principal's use of influence and authority, teachers can be empowered to play key roles in school decision making and other processes. As the awareness of principals of the relationships between these components of school success or failure increases, so will their ability to provide students with optimum educational experiences. Principals clearly hold the power to empower all and improve schools.

Implications

Schools must develop "balanced" authority relationships through which leadership and support from the central office and principal help execute decisions reached through the empowerment of teachers, while teachers' initiatives simultaneously enhance administrators' efforts to attain educational goals.

(Taylor & Levine, 1991, p. 396)

How might principals apply the power continuum and its consequences to their own behaviors? Here are some practical suggestions for principals' personal policy and style.

1. Be aware of the nature of power and realize that it is not a zero-sum phenomenon. Power in an organization may increase or decrease as a result of the personnel within it. Raising the level of power for one individual or group does not necessarily mean decreasing it for another individual or group.

2. Share power, since it leads to empowerment. Empowered teachers can be motivated to act in ways compatible with improving performance and school effectiveness. And most teachers are willing to take responsibility for their decisions and be held accountable for their actions.

3. Be aware of the most effective uses of power, especially authority and influence, in different situations. The effective principal is one who can diagnose system needs and requirements and use whatever power is appropriate.

4. Be sensitive to power--particularly its consequences--in all its forms. Power can be perceived simultaneously as coercion, influence, or authority--or some combination of them. If actions are taken without considering possible reactions, the consequences can be overwhelming.

5. Be a strong leader. Clearly defined roles are essential in any school. Influence and authority, wisely used, will not conflict with teacher empowerment but spur its growth.

6. Be conscious of the outcomes of power behavior: influence brings willing acceptance, authority brings obedience, and coercion brings capitulation. Each outcome has implications for motivating individuals in the future. With coercion, control rests with the principal. With authority, control is equally shared by both parties and is, therefore, somewhat empowering. With influence, control rests with the teacher, thereby being most empowering.

7. Use influence when attempting to redirect someone. If necessary, use authority. Save coercion, however, until all else fails--and use it only if the desired action is an absolute necessity. The cost of coercion in staff morale is very high.

8. Use influence to stretch teachers to greater achievement and commitment. It is the most effective means of supporting change in others, for its success relies on the choice of others to act in ways that they assess as beneficial.

Through the use of influence, the principal guides others to conscious choice, thereby empowering teachers through their own decisions. Empowerment through such synergy means both principal and teachers can move beyond traditional hierarchical relations to more equally delineated expectations. By distributing power more widely, the principal helps everyone focus on common values of cooperation, collaboration, and trust. As "power synergy" evolves in effective schools, all parties are empowered.

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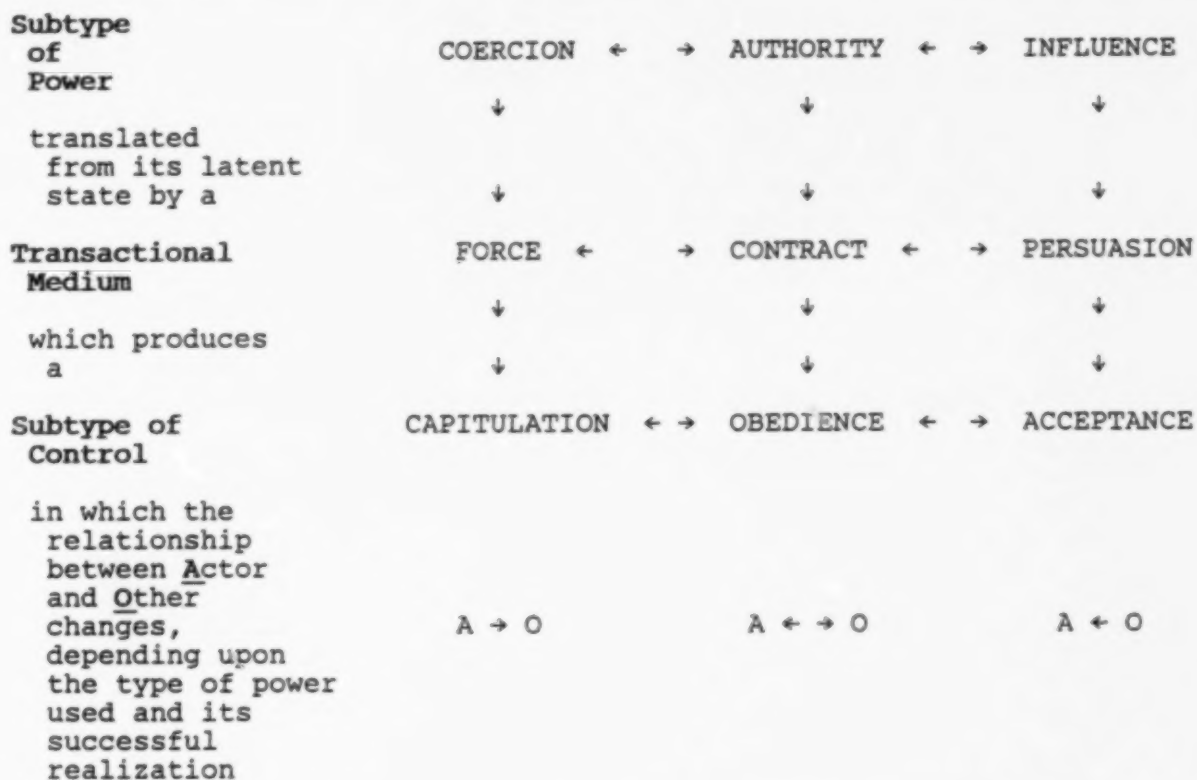


Figure 1: Power-Control Continuum (adapted from Muth, 1984, p. 30)

Table 1

School Districts Participating in the Study

District	Borough	Demographic Characteristics
1	Manhattan	Inner-city, 80% minority
10	Bronx	Inner-city, mixed, some middle class
11	Bronx	Largely middle class, 50% minority
21	Brooklyn	Some inner-city, some middle class
22	Brooklyn	Some inner-city, some middle class
24	Queens	Some inner-city, some middle class
25	Queens	Some inner-city, some middle class
26	Queens	Near-suburban, 15% minority
28	Queens	Some inner-city, some middle class

Table 2

T-tests, Principals and Teachers
Administrator Behavior Scale

Variable	First Quartile	Second Quartile	Third Quartile	Fourth Quartile
Authority	.408	1.271	1.954	1.916
Influence	2.043	3.027	2.878	2.518
Coercion	-1.366	-1.834	-2.135	-.420

Table 3

Means and Correlation Matrix
School Assessment Survey

Variable	Teacher Mean n = 375	Principal Mean n = 34	Total Sample Mean n = 488
Goal Consensus	.285	.413	.301
Leadership	41.408	49.147	42.326
Climate	38.283	42.529	39.018
Horizontal Communication	18.872	20.206	19.727
Vertical Communication	15.376	23.912	16.758
Teacher Performance	61.264	68.809	62.495

Correlation Matrix n = 488						
Variable	G.C.	Lead.	Clim.	HC	VC	TP
Goal Consensus	1.000					
Leadership	.058	1.000				
Climate	.271	.377	1.000			
Horizontal Communic.	.035	.174	.034	1.000		
Vertical Communic.	.093	.351	.096	.657	1.000	
Teacher Performance	.116	.399	.385	.045	.149	1.000

Table 4

Basic School and District Statistics
School Assessment Survey

Variable	Total Sample Mean	Highest School Mean	Lowest School Mean	Highest District Mean	Lowest District Mean
Goal Consensus	.370	.238	.509	.276	.366
Leadership	42.420	47.222	36.071	38.833	44.208
Climate	39.150	45.000	33.063	43.833	35.550
Horizontal Comm.	19.776	24.300	12.333	21.164	18.458
Vertical Comm.	16.820	20.700	13.000	17.984	15.677
Teacher Perf.	62.918	80.190	40.474	74.112	55.565

Table 5

T-test scores for Principals and Teachers, School Assessment Scale

Variable	First Quartile	Second Quartile	Third Quartile	Fourth Quartile
Leadership	1.373	1.834	2.984	2.319
Climate	.869	2.441	2.142	1.815
Horizontal Communication	1.798	-.593	.739	.214
Vertical Communication	5.290	3.778	3.563	3.620
Teacher Performance	-.143	2.688	.745	.730

Table 6

Three Power Variables and Five School Effectiveness Variables
Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations
(n = 488)

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Range
Authority	26.084	4.905	9 - 35
Influence	20.906	4.717	8 - 30
Coercion	14.996	4.214	5 - 25
Leadership	42.326	10.226	17 - 66
Climate	39.018	6.452	21 - 53
Horizontal Comm.	19.727	6.449	6 - 36
Vertical Comm.	16.758	6.485	6 - 36
Teacher Performance	62.495	20.259	0 - 99

Correlation Matrix

Variable	Auth.	Inf.	Coer.	Lead.	Clim.	H.C.	V.C.	T.P.
Authority	1.000							
Influence	.482	1.000						
Coercion	.251	-.402	1.000					
Leadership	.539	.617	-.156	1.000				
Climate	.419	.308	-.074	.377	1.000			
Horiz. Comm.	.117	.158	-.020	.174	.034	1.000		
Vert. Comm.	.195	.296	-.093	.351	.096	.657	1.000	
Teacher Perf.	.319	.317	-.093	.399	.385	.045	.149	1.000

Table 7

Regression Analysis for School Effectiveness
with Influence, Coercion, and Authority as Independent Variables

Standard Error of Estimate					4.348	
Coefficient of Determination (R^2)					.183	
Multiple Correlation Coefficient (R)					.428	
Variable	Reg. Coeff. (Raw)	Std. Err. Reg. Coeff.	St'dized Reg. Coeff.	Tolerance	T Value	P (2 Tail)
Constant	-11.339	12.479	.000	.000	-.909	.371
Influence	-.482	.615	-.194	.446	-.784	.439
Coercion	-.339	.613	-.173	.278	-.553	.584
Authority	1.020	.538	.567	.304	1.896	.068

Analysis of Variance

Source of Variation	Sums of Squares	D.F.	Mean Square	F Ratio	P Value
Linear Regression	126.846	3	42.282	2.237	.104
Residuals from Lin. Reg.	567.141	30	18.905		

Stepwise Regression Analysis

Step	Variable	R	R^2
1	Authority	.407	.166
2	Coercion	.407	.166
3	Influence	.428	.183

Table 8

Regression Analysis for Horizontal Communication
with Influence, Coercion and Authority as
Independent Variables

Standard Error of Estimate	6.3785
Coefficient of Determination (R^2)	0.028
Multiple Correlation Coefficient (R)	.167

Variable	Reg. (Raw)	Std. Err. Coeff.	Std. Coeff. Coeff. Toler.	Reg. T Value	Reg. P (2 Tail)
Constant	13.332	2.141	.000	.000	6.228 .000
Coercion	.052	.090	.034	.581	.580 .562
Influence	.213	.089	.156	.476	2.401 .017
Authority	.044	.081	.034	.532	.550 .583

Analysis of Variance

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	D.F.	Mean Square	F-Ratio	P Value
Linear Regression	566.803	3	188.93	4.645	.003
Resid. Lin. Reg.	19685.949	484	40.67		

Stepwise Regression Analysis

Step	Variable	R	R^2
1	Coercion	.020	.000
2	Influence	.165	.027
3	Authority	.167	.028

Table 9

Regression Analysis for Vertical Communication
With Influence, Coercion and Authority as
Independent Variables

Standard Error of Estimate	6.200
Coefficient of Determination (R^2)	0.092
Multiple Correlation Coefficient (R)	.302

Variable	Reg. (Raw)	Std. Err. Coeff.	Std. Coeff. Coeff.	Reg. Toler.	Reg. T Value	Reg. P (2 Tail)
Constant	6.977	2.081	.000	.000	3.353	.001
Coercion	-.010	.087	-.007	.581	-.117	.907
Influence	.356	.086	.259	.476	4.126	.000
Authority	.095	.079	.072	.532	1.215	.225

Analysis of Variance

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	D. F.	Mean Square	F Ratio	P Value
Linear Regression	1873.877	3	624.63	16.25	.000
Resid. Lin. Reg.	8605.591	484	38.44		

Stepwise Regression Analysis

Step	Variable	R	R^2
1	Coercion	.093	.009
2	Influence	.298	.089
3	Authority	.302	.091